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THE ATLANTA ECONOMIC REVIEW

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Authors and Articles

JACK BLICKSILVER

MARY H. BOWDOIN

An active seaport not only is an asset to the geographical area in which it is located, but its effects are much broader. Raw materials and finished products moving through its facilities originate from and reach citizens throughout the state and region; and foreign trade activity of a business firm necessitates increased employment and payrolls and generates additional state revenue.

The article on the Savannah, Georgia, port, condensed from a larger study, describes the economic effects of Georgia's principal port on the Savannah area as well as its more far-reaching effects on the state as a whole. The authors are on the faculty of Georgia State College of Business Administration: Dr. Blicksilver, Associate Professor of Economics; and Mrs. Bowdoin, with the Bureau of Business and Economic Research.

WARREN A. WALKER

The third in a series of articles on industrial opportunities for the South appears this month in "The Southeastern Corner." Mr. Walker discusses the potentials of development of the vitreous china industry, pointing out two especially favorable advantages for Georgia location: the geographic concentration of kaolin deposits—a raw material for this industry; and the existence of an inexpensive fuel—natural gas, which already runs through major gas pipelines in the kaolin area.

ROBERT FERBER

Information on trends in consumer spending and saving, as part of the over-all economic outlook, is not only beneficial to government economic policy plans, but to business policy as well. Dr. Ferber, in his article "Consumer Panels As a Tool for Financial Research," in addition to pointing out the usefulness of surveys of consumer plans, describes the nature of a panel operation as opposed to a one-time survey, and reviews some of the major problems that may be encountered in this type procedure.

Dr. Ferber, of the University of Illinois, is a member of the Inter-University Committee for Research on Consumer Behavior. His monograph, *Collecting Financial Data by Consumer Panel Techniques*, the first in a series of technical reports on studies carried out by the Committee, was published in September 1959 by the Bureau of Economic and Business Research, University of Illinois.

CALFREY C. CALHOUN

Mr. Calhoun's article "Public Relations and the High School" is adapted from his research study of the activities, practices, and media currently being applied in the field of secondary-school public relations, particularly by business educators. His resulting classified list of activities then serves as a basis for the development of a checklist for evaluative purposes. Further study by the author is expected to refine the checklist and to test the practical value of the activities included by observing their use in a selected number of public schools.

Mr. Calhoun is Assistant Professor of Business Education, School of Business Administration of Georgia State College of Business Administration.

THE ATLANTA ECONOMIC REVIEW

THE SAVANNAH PORT IN GEORGIA'S ECONOMY

by
Jack Blicksilver
and
Mary H. Bowdoin

In strongly defending a planned expenditure of more than a half billion dollars to expand New York's port facilities, the Chase Manhattan Bank recently averred: "A busy look-ahead seaport provides jobs for men and women, customers for competitive business. And, whenever people work and goods move, prosperity follows."

This statement summarizes one significant aspect of the impact of an active port. The flow of products generates employment and payrolls, profits and taxes through the services performed by bar pilots and tug boat operators, stevedores and steamship agencies, by craters for export trade, marine suppliers and ship repair yards, by brokers, freight forwarders, bankers, and by a host of related businesses. As commodities move to or from the docks, warehousing firms and transportation lines—rail and motor—perform their functions. For materials processed at the port city, either to be readied for outbound shipment or for consumer use in the local and interior markets, the value added by manufacturing is reflected in increased earnings, wages, salaries, and tax payments. Thus, the variety of firms centered at the port city and involved in service, storage, transportation, and processing activities derive the most immediate and direct benefits from the flow of waterborne commerce.

But this is only half the story. The chairman of the Melbourne, Australia, port authority placed his finger on the other major recipients of benefits from a flourishing port when he tersely explained, "It is a truism that ports exist to serve the community and principally the community of their own hinterland." The cogency of this generalization is in

no way weakened by the fact that the total monetary value of a port to its trade area cannot be measured with mathematical precision and that in some instances industrial users of partly-processed materials, as well as ultimate consumers of goods, are completely unaware of the foreign origin of the products they use. The basic validity of the generalization can be gauged in the bitter wars instigated by landlocked nations seeking a window to the world and, in the United States, by the periodic waves of internal improvement programs designed to facilitate the interior regions' access to salt water.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN GEORGIA PORTS

Georgians have always been fortunate in the gateways to the rest of the world provided by Savannah from the early settlement of the colony and by Brunswick, especially after the passage of a Congressional River and Harbor Act in 1836. More recently, programs leading to the development of inland port facilities at Bainbridge, Augusta, and Columbus offer the exciting promise of opening the highly industrialized Piedmont counties of the state by direct water connections to the outside world. The facilities at Bainbridge are already in operation, and during the year ending June 30, 1959, almost 50 thousand tons of cargo were barged up the Apalachicola River to the State Docks, where a warehouse and transit sheds with 26 thousand square feet of storage area have been prepared to meet the anticipated demands of rapidly growing traffic. In Brunswick, too, hopes are running high as a two million dollar expansion program is being completed and as such water-oriented firms as Bestwall Gypsum have already been attracted to the city. From a nadir of 56 thousand tons of cargo in 1943 and 1944, a heartening recovery has already taken place, with total waterborne commerce attaining a level of more than

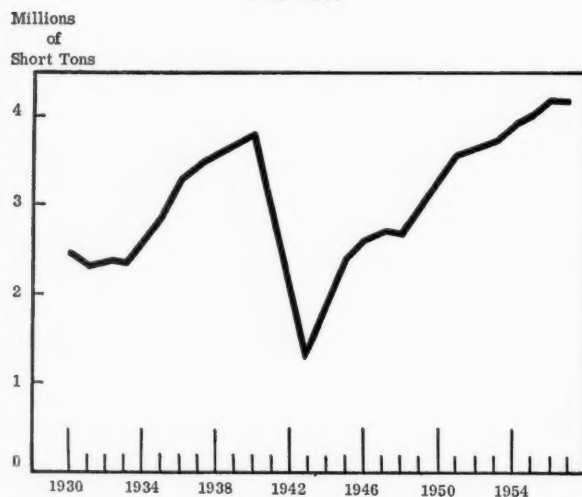
NOTE: This article is a condensation of the authors' Research Paper Number 15, "The Impact of Georgia Ports Upon the Economy of the State."

400 thousand short tons for 1957 and 1958. With a number of large industrial concerns in the coastal area such as Olin Mathieson and Hercules Powder making plans to ship from Brunswick once the port rehabilitation program is concluded, a bright future for the seaport seems assured.

It is Savannah, however, which remains Georgia's most important seaport. Currently served by more than 75 steamship lines, five major railroads, and 42 common carrier motor truck firms, with deep water terminals operated by two of the railroads and a number of the industrial users of the port in addition to the modern facilities of the Georgia Ports Authority,¹ Savannah handles approximately 90 per cent of the state's total waterborne commerce. Tonnage through Savannah has grown from 2.4 million short tons in 1945 to over 4 million short tons annually since 1955. (See Figure 1.)

Figure 1

Total Tonnage* Through Savannah Port
1930 - 1957



*Three-year moving averages of annual data.

Source of data: Waterborne Commerce of the United States, Annual Reports of the Chief of Engineers, United States Army Corps of Engineers.

THE ECONOMIC IMPACT ON THE SAVANNAH AREA

In addition to becoming a leading seaport along the South Atlantic, Savannah has long enjoyed an industrial economy of considerable magnitude. Initially, the majority of Savannah's industrial firms were involved in the primary processing of the hinterland's agricultural and timber products in preparation for their shipment to European and northern markets and the mixing of fertilizer for sale in the

southern interior. However, Savannah has ceased to act simply as a handler and processor of agricultural and forest commodities and has developed into a distribution and manufacturing center for a much greater variety of higher valued commodities, to an increasing degree adding to the value of commodities going through its docks. The value added by manufacture for Chatham County increased four-fold between 1939 and 1947 and then doubled again by 1954. New industries have moved in and well-established plants have enlarged their operations. By early 1959 metropolitan Savannah had 224 manufacturing establishments employing 15.3 thousand workers with an annual payroll of 68 million dollars.

In regard to the type of manufacturing activities represented, Savannah's industry may be said to be largely raw materials-oriented. With the major exceptions of the Savannah Sugar Refining Corporation, Tetley Tea, and a number of fertilizer plants, all of which are market as well as raw materials-oriented, the greatest industrial strides since the war have been made in the category of industrial goods, and particularly in chemicals, paper, and building materials.

The major significance of industrial goods industries is that they usually are highly capitalized, high value-adding industries, requiring well-trained and highly paid employees. Due to their generally extensive capitalization and large operations they are often large taxpayers as well.

In addition to the numerous Savannah-based firms directly benefiting from waterborne transportation, there is a growing tendency for "tandem" operations to develop; port-dependent firms have attracted satellite industries which utilize the materials they produce. Thus, several manufacturers of roofing materials use American Oil Company's asphalt and Ruberoid's felt; the sulphuric acid produced by Southern Fertilizer and Chemical Company is being purchased by several fertilizer plants as well as by American Cyanamid Company; and an increasing number of local firms are relying upon the paper containers made by Union Bag-Camp Paper Corporation. Developments along this line denote a growing level of industrial maturity for the city as well as a considerable indirect, if sometimes unacknowledged, dependence of many Savannah-based firms upon the port.

A survey of the Savannah metropolitan area disclosed that during 1958 there were 148 firms in manufacturing, transportation, and service activities related to some extent to the movement of waterborne commerce. On the basis of considered estimates by representatives of these firms of the percentage of their total business activity which was derived from or could be attributed to waterborne commerce, it was discovered that Savannah-based employment and payrolls *directly* dependent upon port activities amounted to 6,516 employees

¹ A recent state appropriation is expected to provide for major expansion at the Savannah State Docks, including additional berthing, storage, and truck facilities.

and 30.9 million dollars during 1958 (or fiscal 1958-1959).

If an alternative approach is employed—that of attributing to the impact of waterborne commerce the total employment and payrolls of those firms deriving major benefits from the use of the port—then a total of 12,013 employees and a payroll of 59.2 million dollars is involved.

Since it is a well-accepted assumption that a dollar of business directly attributable to waterborne commerce will generate an additional dollar of business with a similar multiplicative effect on employment and payrolls, the minimum direct monetary impact of the port of Savannah in terms of wages and salaries received initially by those in port-dependent activities is 62 million dollars annually, and an estimate as high as 118 million dollars would not be overbold.

ECONOMIC IMPACT ON THE STATE AS A WHOLE

In a sense, every producer and consumer in the broad trade area served by an efficiently-operated seaport derives economic benefits in that freight rates to the interior are below what they would be if the potentiality of waterborne transportation did not exist. More specifically, agricultural, lumbering, mining, and industrial firms would be forced to compete on much less favorable terms with more fortunately situated business rivals. As in the case of a number of Georgia firms before the inauguration of Seatrail service between Savannah and the Southwest, companies might easily be deprived completely of the possibility of competing in certain markets without the availability of low-cost water transportation. Another illustration, of even greater relevance to many Georgians, is given in a recent study prepared by the United States Department of Commerce, which bluntly concluded: "Were it not for exports, the 250,000 Georgia farmers (including naval stores operators) would literally be smothered in their own products."² Although only modest amounts of cotton are still shipped out of Savannah, large quantities of naval stores, clay, kaolin and fuller's earth, and wood products continue to move through the port. In addition, shipments of grain and grain products, fodder and feed, and pecan nuts remain important, and in some cases growing, export items. On the other hand, with the Southeast using 5.5 million tons of fertilizer annually and with North Carolina and Georgia ranking number one and two in the nation as consumers of commercial fertilizers, the growing importation through Savannah of potash, sulphur, and nitrogenous fertilizer materials is of direct benefit to the rural population.

But more reflective of the changing economy of the state and region are the expanding movements

through the port of industrial and chemical specialties, agricultural machinery, building materials, asphaltic products, woodpulp, and paper products. A cause for cheer among the exponents of a well-rounded, balanced economy is the fact that although Savannah remains essentially a bulk cargo port, more diversified general cargo and consumer durable goods are increasingly being handled through the port. (See Table 1.)

Table 1
Major Exports, by Classification, Through Savannah Port, Selected Years
(Includes foreign, coastwise, and internal shipments)

	Short Tons		
	1939	1948	1958
Agricultural Products			
(Total)	124,957	43,699	27,738
Unprocessed	35,119	21,451	10,941
Processed	93,249	22,998	16,797
Chemicals (Total)	20,087	3,715	25,914
Chemical Specialties	—	823	10,432
Fertilizer Materials	16,997	1,119	12,972
Industrial Chemicals	—	1,383	1,891
Other	3,090	390	619
Lumber & Wood Products			
(Total)	162,260	22,171	118,463
Woodpulp	11,235	312	89,880
Other	151,025	21,859	28,583
Machinery	—	3,342	25,881
Metals (Total)	202,222	3,846	24,840
Unprocessed	135,328	—	16,173
Processed	66,894	3,846	8,667
Minerals & Min. Products			
(Total)	96,688	5,401	36,627
Asphalt	6,081	—	8,272
Clay & Fuller's Earth	26,110	2,617	26,641
Other	64,497	2,784	1,714
Naval Stores	136,776	44,435	62,052
Paper & Paper Products	111,981	2,998	179,347
Petroleum Products	161,660	113,233	122,438
Textiles (Mfd.)	61,131	1,396	9,260
General Mdse. and Commodities NOS	143,769	2,738	23,452

Source of data: Waterborne Commerce of the United States, Annual Reports of the Chief of Engineers, U. S. Army Corps of Engineers.

The evolution toward a more balanced economy is also seen by comparing the receipts through Savannah during the prewar period and more recent years. The expanding activity of the Savannah Sugar Refining Corporation and the Tetley Tea Company is represented in an increase of imported unprocessed agricultural commodities, while an acceleration in the flow of coal tar products, gypsum, asphalt, inedible molasses, and petroleum underscores the progress in construction, highway building, and the chemical industry. Important changes in the state's diversified apparel and textile industries are reflected in the increasing imports of burlap, wool, synthetic fibers, and latex. The growing dependence of the rapidly industrializing region on crude and semi-processed metals brought in from the outside is also detected in the trade figures. (See Table 2.)

² Foreign Trade Impact Study, State of Georgia, U. S. Department of Commerce, 1958, p. 1.

Table 2
Major Imports, by Classification, Through Savannah
Port, Selected Years
(Includes foreign, internal, and coastwise receipts)

		Short Tons	
	1939	1948	1958
Agricultural Products			
(Total)	294,862	267,715	294,355
Unprocessed	138,212	258,054	277,720
Tea	—	—	1,869
Sugar	138,212	258,054	275,851
Processed	156,650	9,661	14,766
Refined Sugar	24,672	—	—
Other	131,978	9,661	14,766
Chemicals (Total)	318,815	144,345	253,578
Fertilizer	154,363	142,288	161,916
Other	164,452	2,057	91,662
Fibres (Total)	—	12,716	1,775
Synthetic & Manmade	—	—	—
Fibres and Mfres.	—	1,294	1,775
Vegetable	—	11,422	—
Lumber & Wood Products	118,556	60,542	18,511
Machinery	1,439	—	4,905
Metals (Total)	18,174	6,252	130,410
Unprocessed	—	6,252	83,986
Processed	18,174	—	46,424
Minerals & Min.			
Products (Total)	94,064	334,059	401,089
Coal Tar Products	—	6,396	18,176
Crude Gypsum	91,568	326,493*	367,419
Other	2,496	1,170	15,494
Paper & Paper Products	52,444	17,730	6,425
Petroleum & Pet. Products	1,370,792	2,043,542	2,407,303
Textiles (Mfd. & Unmfd.)			
(Total)	16,356	17	36,335
Burlap and Jute Bagging	7,984	—	35,562
Other	8,372	17	773
Miscellaneous	21,214	—	30,111

*Includes limestone.

Source of data: Waterborne Commerce of the United States, Annual Reports of the Chief of Engineers, U. S. Army Corps of Engineers.

The changing product flow points up in unmistakable terms the evolving economy of the state and the pivotal role of the port in facilitating the transition.

Direct and tangible benefits to the economy of a state from the operation of an active, efficient port include (1) revenues made available to support state services and institutions obtained from port-dependent firms, situated usually on the coast, and (2) advantages in freight rates and delivery time enjoyed by all port-using firms throughout the state. In regard to the first, by applying the formula of the percentage of total business associated with or derived from waterborne commerce to the state corporate income, sales and use, and license taxes paid by firms located at the port cities, it was determined that at Savannah alone 2.2 million dollars in state tax money can be directly ascribed to the port.

Products moving through the port originate from and are bound for every section of the state of Georgia. For 1958-1959, 118 counties³ situated in all

parts of Georgia were found to be directly engaged in waterborne commerce through Savannah State Docks; of these counties, 106 counties received goods from foreign countries and/or other states, 59 shipped products through the port, and 47 counties both imported and exported. (See Figure 2.)

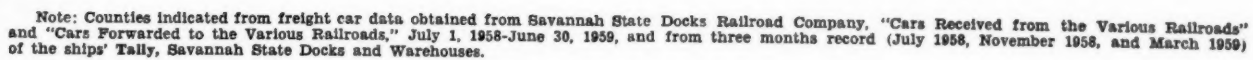
In assessing the impact of the facilities at Savannah on the port-using agricultural mining, lumbering, and industrial firms located in Georgia, the state was divided into nine regions (Figure 2) which possess within themselves considerable physiographic and economic homogeneity.⁴ The major products, by weight, imported and exported in 1958-59 by each of these regions through the Savannah State Docks were as follows:⁵

Region 1:	Imports	Exports
	Burlap	Iron cores
	Staple fiber	Pulpboard
	Wire, fence, nails	
	Latex	
	Cotton	
Region 2:	Wire, fence, nails	Aircraft parts
	Burlap	Aluminum scrap
	Pineapple	Shoe machinery
	Steel	Machinery
	Gasoline	Trucks
Region 3:	Wire, fence, nails	Cotton
	Burlap	Machinery
	Sulphur	
Region 4:	Burlap	Gum rosin
	Pipe	Cotton piece goods
	Latex	
	Cotton	
Region 5:	Wire, fence, nails	Rosin
	Cement pressure pipes	Kaolin
	Gasoline	Turpentine
	Sulphur	Pulpboard
	Fertilizer	Paperboard
Region 6:	Burlap	Cotton
	Wire, fence, nails	Stone
	Cotton	
Region 7:	Burlap	Earth
	Wire, fence, nails	Clay
	Fertilizer	
Region 8:	Wire, fence, nails	Rosin
	Jute yarn	Camphene
	Steel	Tobacco
		Woodpulp
		Paper
Region 9:	Titanium slag	Turpentine and rosin
	Steel bars	Hickory handle blanks
	Wire, fence, nails	Iron cores
	Pineapple	Ski billets
	Gasoline and fuel	Bags
	Sulphur	Scrap iron
	Logs	Pulpboard
	Steel	Paper
	Salt cake	Paperboard
		Tall oil

⁴ See, for example, John L. Fulmer, Analysis of Georgia Personal Income Payments, by Counties, Engineering Experiment Station, Georgia Institute of Technology, February 1959.

⁵ Information obtained from the following sources: "Cars Received from the Various Railroads" and "Cars Forwarded to the Various Railroads," July 1, 1958-June 30, 1959 (Savannah State Docks Railroad Company); and ships' Tally, Savannah State Docks and Warehouses. Summary information from the latter derived by multiplying by four the data for three months (July 1958, November 1958, and March 1959).

State of Georgia Counties Which
Export and Import Through the Savannah
State Docks, 1958-1959



PUBLIC RELATIONS AND THE HIGH SCHOOL

(With particular emphasis on the activities and practices used by business educators)

by
Calfrey C. Calhoun

THE NEED FOR EFFECTIVE PUBLIC RELATIONS AT THE HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL

American schools have extended their mission and services until they touch more lives than ever before. But, paradoxically, many of the "whys" of education have moved further and further away from the public grasp. And as one worried superintendent put it, "Schools today face a crisis—one which can be solved only by using effective public relations procedures. Education must justify itself in the minds of those who finance it . . . this is the only way out."¹

The development of our public schools has far outstripped a similar development of a widespread popular understanding of them. Administrators and teachers have been too fully absorbed in the immediate problem at hand to give adequate attention to the problem of informing the public and enlisting its cooperation in the education process. School administrators have generally assumed that if we "run a good school" the public must necessarily approve, not stopping to realize that conceptions may vary widely as to what constitutes a "good school." The public press should be one of the most effective avenues for getting information to the public, yet newspapers have found it easy to present anything new in the educational field in a sensational and often an unfavorable light.

The work of the schools has changed rapidly with the increasing complexity of our modern civilization. This is as it should be. Education must continue to adapt to the processes of change and progress if it is to fulfill its mission. Educators tell us that the

NOTE: The author's full research paper "Public Relations in Secondary-School Business Education" may be obtained by writing the Bureau of Business and Economic Research, School of Business Administration of Georgia State College of Business Administration.

¹ Stewart Harral, *Tested Public Relations for Schools* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1952), p. 3.

public schools will make progress about as rapidly as the general public will support change. For this reason, it is more important than even that the public be intelligently informed as to what the schools are attempting to do. The public will continue its support of the best in education only when it is kept well informed of the progress of its schools.

It is apparent that schools generally fail to take full advantage of activities and procedures which are readily available as public relations instruments. If today's schools expect to provide an effective educational program, they must be constantly alert to their public relations responsibilities and opportunities. Effective communication and interaction between the school and its many publics should not be left to chance; it should be consciously planned and periodically evaluated.

Research workers point to several reasons why public school administrators and teachers should be concerned with the school's public relations. Among the more important reasons which may be cited are these:

1. the need for understanding by the public that school patterns are changing;
2. the limited and often inaccurate information possessed by citizens as to the work of the schools, their function and purposes;
3. the lack of understanding of educational values, needs, and possibilities for improvements;
4. a tendency to look with suspicion on contemplated changes;
5. the frequent misunderstanding and criticisms of school policies and improvements;
6. the unenlightened and antagonistic attitudes sometimes shown toward some aspects of the school program;
7. the need for developing the will to progress;
8. the low interest-correlation between information provided through the press and that desired by readers;
9. the failure to ascertain the interests, desires, and needs of the community and to interpret them to the school personnel in terms of an educational program;
10. the need for interpreting the many services which the schools perform;
11. the need for resolving diversities of opinion as to the relative merits of different educational practices and proposals;
12. the successful inroads made on legislative bodies by pressure groups, resulting in undesirable policies and legislation affecting schools;
13. the lack of mutual understanding as to lay and professional responsibilities;
14. the reluctance of the public to accord teachers freedom in the classroom and the lack of appreciation of the role of the teacher in community affairs;
15. the need for co-operation between the school, the home, and the community in developing attitudes, opinions, and understandings favorable to an adequate program of public education;
16. the competition with other community activities and institutions for attention and support; and
17. the opposition to tax increases for school support.²

Although public relations is an intangible and its results difficult to measure, its efforts, nevertheless, contribute clearly to the work of the school. Because its processes do not easily lend themselves to the scientific precision associated with the measurement of more objective data, there has been a noticeable lag in the development and application of more effective means of school-community interaction. In order to bring about better understanding between the school's internal and external publics,³ a planned and systematic approach to public relations is demanded. More study and research must be carried on into new ways and means of communication between the school and its publics, as well as a proper utilization of public relations principles and practices which have already been developed.

EVOLUTION OF PUBLIC RELATIONS PRINCIPLES

In order to set the stage for an understanding of public school relations in its modern setting, it is necessary to trace briefly the development of the subject. The history of public school relations is marked by at least five distinct stages, each of which has reflected growth and change in the social, political, and economic order of American life. These approaches are generally referred to in the literature as follows:

Town Meeting

In the beginning of public education in the United States, the school, along with the church, formed a center around which the social, educational, cultural, recreational, and religious life of the community revolved. Town meetings, folk dancing, and community socials were held in the school. Because communities were small, the welfare of the community was the concern of everyone. This has been termed the town meeting approach to public relations.⁴

Hands Off

As the western movement scattered, the population and cities increased in size, and schools could no longer serve as centers around which community life centered. This created the second stage of public relations which is characterized by a hands-off policy, whose advocates contended that administration of the schools should be left to those who have had training and experience in education.

Selling

The third distinct stage of public relations is characterized by a selling technique which had its roots in the boom days of the twenties and its branches in the depression. Books and articles of that day told of the amount of money which industry

³ The classification of public relations activities and media used in this study may be designated as "internal" and "external." Internal activities or media refer to those used primarily with in-school personnel, such as teachers, students, administration, staff. External activities or media designate those used primarily with outside publics, such as parents, businessmen, civic groups.

⁴ George E. Mathes, "What Need for a Public Relations Program for the Secondhand School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 34: 73-80, May, 1950.

² Walter S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950), pp. 901-02. Used with permission.

and business spent on advertising and suggested that since the schools had something to sell they should apply the techniques of business education. During the depression of the late twenties and early thirties, school systems depended on this technique to sell the public on the existing program of education.

Although short, intensive publicity campaigns served a purpose during periods of emergency, their limitations led educators to look upon a period of emphasis upon continuous publicity as an essential in developing better relations between the school and the community.

Educational Interpretation

Gradually the idea of continuous publicity as the best means for establishing effective relationships between the school and the public gave way to the fourth stage in the expanding concept of public relations—that of educational interpretation, which grew out of the inadequacy of the town meeting, hands-off, and selling approaches. Developed largely during the thirties, it extended the scope of public relations activities to include what Yeager has described as “a certain resilient sensitivity to the community . . . as to its needs, reactions, desires, and abilities to mesh with the school program.”⁵

Although it generally moves in only one direction, this philosophy of public school relations has much to commend it. It is widely used with considerable success at the present time. Interpretation manifests itself in the publication of pamphlets, newsletters, articles, lectures, panel discussions, radio and television broadcasts, and in the use of school-produced films and film strips.

Perhaps the most concise presentation of the philosophy of educational interpretation is offered by Miller who defines it as follows:

A program of public school relations based upon the philosophy of educational interpretation implies that the sole task of establishing desirable relations rests upon the school itself. The school administrator, with the aid of his associates, does his best to locate, define, and crystallize social attitudes, feelings, and desires. He then chooses the most effective means of showing how the educational program of the school is attempting to reflect these attitudes, feelings, and desires. This procedure is called *educational interpretation* and is based upon the assumption that such a procedure is the sole responsibility of the school and will be accepted by the community as such.⁶

Although the philosophy of educational interpretation served to advance the general level of public relations and continues to do so, it, too, has come under attack since it operates fundamentally as a one-way procedure. The weakness of educational interpretation as a concept of school public relations is

pointed out by Yeager as follows:

The old adage that a good school is its best interpretation is not enough. The public must be taken into the confidence of the school truthfully, continuously, understandingly. . . . The principles of educational interpretation rest upon the fundamental concept that, although theoretically the schools belong to the people, the right to control and administer them understandably is vested in the administration. Although there are occasionally isolated instances of cooperative endeavor, interpretation scarcely admits of any basic form of cooperative arrangement whereby school-community relations becomes an inter-action of school and community. This is its fundamental weakness—it is a one-way rather than a two-way procedure.⁷

Cooperative Endeavor

The above-mentioned weaknesses of educational interpretation paved the way for the fifth, latest, and most inclusive stage in the development of school public relations. This now generally recognized cooperative approach is based upon the philosophy that the total welfare of the child demands a cooperative endeavor to amalgamate home, school, and community resources in the interests of the child. Success of the educational program is a result of the cooperative efforts and concern of these three agencies. The term “cooperative endeavor” has been coined by Yeager to describe the new philosophy of public school relations. The concept is clarified by Yeager as follows:

Home-school-community relations should finally become a cooperative enterprise. It might be defined as the development of those rightful relationships which should exist between the home and the school on one hand, and the community on the other, where the educational and social welfare of the child is concerned.⁸

Under the philosophy of cooperative endeavor, the education of the child can no longer be considered the unique function of the school. Private schools, churches, homes, and organized groups of many types not only insist they have a right to certain educational tasks, but also demand that their functions be integrated with those of the public schools.

Summarily, under the philosophy of educational interpretation, the program of public school relations originates within the school system itself; under the philosophy of cooperative endeavor, the program of public school relations results from the mutual planning and executing of home, school, and community.

Both these philosophies of public school relations are prevalent at the present time. Ideally, they are not opposed to each other since they both have in mind the importance of social living in the total educational process. If the philosophy underlying the administration of a program of public school relations is that of educational interpretation, it means that the school believes that the entire task of interpreting the educational process rests with

⁵ William A. Yeager, *Home-School-Community Relations* (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1939), cited by Walter S. Monroe, *op. cit.*, p. 902.

⁶ Delmas F. Miller, “An Appraisal Technique for Programs of Public School Relations” (Unpublished Doctor’s thesis, University of Pittsburgh, 1943), p. 145.

⁷ William A. Yeager, *op. cit.*, p. 112.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 23.

the school itself. The recipients of this interpretation are the constituency of the school; that is, the home and the community. Planning, organizing, and executing are the functions of the school. Under the philosophy of cooperative endeavor, the school recognizes the program of interpreting the educational process as one involving total community consciousness. Since the home and the community contribute to the education of the child, they share mutually in the responsibility of understanding and coordinating the educational procedure. Planning, organizing, and executing are a process of mutual interaction involving home, school, and community.

From the beginning, the school has recognized the right of all interested parties; namely, the home, school, and community, to assume some responsibility for the total education of the child. Consequently, the problem of establishing desirable relationships between these three agencies tends to be regarded more and more as a cooperative undertaking with everyone striving toward a common purpose under the leadership of the school.

School authorities and public relations specialists generally agree that careful planning, periodic evaluation, and systematic follow-up are key essentials in a school's public relations program. Other standards which should be met include: honesty, continuity, comprehensiveness, sensitivity to all publics, simplicity, positiveness, balance, sufficiency, concreteness, vitality, and coordination. If the public relations program is based upon a definite philosophy and suitable objectives intrinsic within the school program, if it is understandable, resourceful, inclusive, and democratically administered and appraised, the principal criteria for successful school-community relations will have been met.

THE PUBLIC RELATIONS PROBLEM IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

As an integral part of the total secondary-school program, business education faces the continuous and challenging task of interpreting its objectives and purposes to publics both inside and outside the school. In addition, business education is particularly concerned with relationships arising from existing or potential contact with business and industry as an outgrowth of the school's educational program and through business employment of the school's product.

The Special Role of the Business Teacher

The business teacher is an important human link between the school and business. The strength of that link will determine, in a large measure, whether or not the school is keeping abreast of the needs of the community and whether the school is actually fitting its graduates to take their places in the business world. In making a positive effort to know the needs of local business, such as promoting cooperative vocational office training programs, follow-up studies of business graduates, field trips, and in-

formal contacts with businessmen, the school can adjust its teaching procedures and curriculum to meet the demands of the immediate community and of the graduates who may eventually migrate to other communities. These liaison-with-business activities of a business teacher, if properly coordinated, will do much to bring into proper focus the school, the student, and the business community.

Because of the unique relationship between business education on the one hand and community business and professional groups on the other, the business education teacher should be a leader in the field of public relations. He should capitalize on the spotlight that is now on education. He should keep his perspective by remembering that there are some weaknesses in our schools—he should not shut his eyes to them; he needs to work on them. He should take more initiative in securing more meaningful cooperation of internal and external school publics. Finally, he should improve his technique of informing others about the school.

It is evident that if business education is to be effective, the business teacher must earn the support and cooperation of many publics. Through a planned public relations program, business education can achieve such cooperation and support, interpret the goals and purposes of business education, justify the expanded costs of improving and extending the business program, and prevent or answer attack and criticism.

Hendrickson lists six types of problems faced by business educators which have strong implications for a public relations program:

1. the need to define business education, to point out its objectives and goals;
2. the need to define the standards to which business education ascribes;
3. the need to interpret methods of teaching the business subjects;
4. the need to change the stereotypes that have become so deeply rooted in the minds of the various publics about business education;
5. the need to point out the accomplishments of business education;
6. the need to interpret what is being done to improve the quality of the business program.⁹

The basic problem presented by this need for public relations is one of determining *which* activities and practices can be relied upon to interpret both the school and business education to the publics they serve. A variety of activities and ideas are needed for continuous effect in public relations. Publicity and stunts may attract the public, but sound activities that will get all publics involved with the program are needed to maintain the support and continued confidence of these publics for the business education program.

⁹ William J. Hendrickson, "Public Relations for Business Education: An Analysis of Activities and Practices with Recommendations for Improvement" (Unpublished Doctor's thesis, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1953), pp. 4-5.

Research Studies in the Field

A number of studies have been made concerning the principles and practices comprising the public relations program of the entire secondary school as a unit. However, only a limited amount of research has been carried out in the area of public relations in the field of business education at the secondary level. All of these studies were completed since 1947.

Studies conducted by McFarland,¹⁰ Dugan,¹¹ and Giffin¹² were directed toward the central problem of determining school-community relationships of business teachers. These three studies, carried out in separate states, are pertinent to the present investigation in regard to their concern with activities, agencies, avenues, and media for developing understanding for business education within the school and between the school and outside publics, as well as with ways of using present means more effectively.

A study by Breasted, because of its emphasis upon the improvement of relationships between education and business, is of particular importance to business educators.¹³

A public relations handbook developed by Lallman is pertinent to the present study insofar as the identification of public relations practices used by business educators is concerned.¹⁴

The study by Hendrickson, an identification of public relations practices used by business education at the high school and college level in three eastern states, is an important source for current public relations activities and media employed as communicative and interpretive devices in business education.¹⁵

The review of literature revealed a number of *internal* or in-school publics through which better public relations for business education could be promoted. Those selected for initial inclusion in the checklist included (1) school administrators, (2) teachers, (3) guidance personnel, (4) clerical and secretarial personnel, (5) custodial, maintenance, and service personnel, and (6) students.

The literature also revealed an almost unlimited number of *external* publics, those beyond the environs of the high school. Those which were selected

for initial inclusion in the checklist included (1) merchants and businessmen, (2) parents, (3) community organizations, (4) professional education associations, (5) colleges, (6) junior high schools, and (7) alumni.

A Public Relations Checklist for Business Education

As a result of the analysis of the literature, an extensive list of public relations practices used in education and in business was obtained. From this listing, a checklist was prepared, utilizing all those items which were verified through other research studies of public relations, all items which, it was felt, could be used to some advantage in a high school business education program. A process of organization and refinement was then begun, and the list was further reduced to 119 items, classified in major headings under three principal divisions as follows:

1. Public relations activities which may be used by the business teacher to reach external school publics:
 - A. Contacts with merchants and businessmen
 - B. Contacts with community organizations
 - C. Contacts with parents
 - D. Membership, attendance, and participation in professional groups
 - E. Contacts with colleges
 - F. Contacts with prospective students in junior high schools
 - G. Contacts with alumni
 - H. Other
2. Public relations activities which may be used by the business teacher to reach internal school publics:
 - A. Contacts with students
 - B. Contacts with school administrators and supervisors
 - C. Relationships with school faculty
 - D. Contacts with school guidance staff
 - E. Contacts with clerical, secretarial, and administrative staff workers of the school
 - F. Contacts with school maintenance, custodial, and service personnel
 - G. Relationships with the school as a whole.
3. School-sponsored activities which, of themselves, promote good public relations for business education:
 - A. School clubs enrolling business students
 - B. Student publications involving business students
 - C. School assemblies centered around business education
 - D. School displays and exhibits featuring business education
 - E. School celebration of special days and weeks
 - F. Special services by business students to teachers, administrators, and community
 - G. Other.

The Public Relations Checklist for Business Education¹⁶ is the end-product of this study. It answers the primary question, "What are the nature and scope of public relations practices used in business education as shown by research studies and the general literature?" and it classifies these practices into workable categories in terms of the persons or groups concerned.

¹⁶ The Checklist devised by the author is contained in the full research paper.

¹⁰ Douglas E. McFarland, "A Study of Certain Community Relationships of Business Teachers in the Public Secondary Schools of Michigan" (Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1947).

¹¹ James Michael Dugan, "A Study of the Community Relationships of Business Teachers in the Public Secondary Schools of Iowa" (Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Iowa, Iowa City, 1952).

¹² James Francis Giffin, "Community Relationships of Business Teachers in the High Schools of Illinois (Excluding Chicago)" (Unpublished Doctor's thesis, Northwestern University, Evanston, 1953).

¹³ F. Kenneth Breasted, "A Study of the Extent, Nature, and Problems of the Relationships between Industry and Education in Connecticut during the First Half of the Twentieth Century" (Unpublished Doctor's thesis, New York University, New York, 1952).

¹⁴ Marian Ellen Lallman, "A Public Relations Handbook for the Business Teacher" (Unpublished Master's thesis, The University of Southern California, Los Angeles, 1953).

¹⁵ William J. Hendrickson, "Public Relations for Business Education: An Analysis of Activities and Practices with Recommendations for Improvement" (Unpublished Doctor's thesis, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1953).

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES:

Methods for Figuring—at Home and Abroad

Unflattering comparisons have repeatedly been drawn between the rate of unemployment in the United States and lower levels reported in various foreign countries. One of the latest appeared in the Report of the Special Senate Committee on Unemployment Problems, released on March 30, which included, as one of nine major conclusions, the statement that:

High rates of unemployment are not a necessary part of the private enterprise system. Unemployment can be reduced by reasonable private and public policies, as demonstrated by the experience of Great Britain, Sweden, Norway, Finland, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and France. The unemployment rates in these countries are considerably lower than those in the United States.

There is no quarrel with the opening sentence of this statement, but we need to take closer look at the evidence that rates of unemployment are considerably lower in Western Europe and ponder the "private and public policies" sometimes used abroad to harness people to their jobs. The following table shows rates of unemployment in 1958 and 1959 in the countries cited by the Committee, except France and Finland which do not regularly publish rates:

	Unemployment as per cent of the labor force	
	1958	1959
United States	6.8	5.5
Great Britain	2.2	2.3
Sweden	2.5	2.0
Norway	2.3	2.2
Netherlands	2.4	1.9
Switzerland	0.5	0.4

Source: United Nations, Monthly Bulletin of Statistics.

The contrast in unemployment rates between the United States and these other nations may appear striking at first glance, but the differences are more superficial than real. The trouble is that these comparisons ignore the very large differences in concept and measurement of unemployment, degrees of industrialization, local practices and customs, and the amounts of government intervention in business which different peoples tolerate.

One reason U.S. unemployment figures look relatively high is that the United States has one of the most all-inclusive definitions of unemployment in the world. The aim is to include all persons unemployed and looking for work, with certain other groups added on for good measure:

workers with jobs but temporarily laid off or waiting to report; persons unable to look for work because of illness; workers who voluntarily quit their jobs; many people such as students and housewives available only for part-time work; and individuals who volunteer the information that they would look for work if they believed it to be available in their area or occupation. The U.S. figures reported are estimates based on monthly surveys of a selected sample of households.

In the other countries listed, unemployment figures are based on true counts of persons who register themselves as looking for work. Such registration is voluntary, but necessary if the person wishes to collect unemployment insurance. The number out of work tends to be understated to the extent that certain groups are not covered by the unemployment insurance program or choose not to register.

Some Closer Comparisons

In Great Britain, whole classes of jobless persons are unlikely to be covered by registration data although they would be counted as unemployed by American standards. These include: married women and persons on pensions who generally have chosen not to contribute to the insurance program; casual workers and certain other groups not covered by the program; persons who quit voluntarily or are otherwise disqualified from receiving benefits; and persons who desire to shop around for a job on their own instead of being referred by the employment exchange to one which they might not like. Professor H. A. Turner of Manchester University, analyzing the British figures in the May 1959 issue of the *Manchester School of Economic and Social Studies*, concluded that:

... the total of such concealed unemployment would have represented between 2½ and 3 per cent of the employees; and had the official unemployment percentage, 2.4, on the 8th of December 1958, been compiled by methods like that used in the United States, which picked up such people, it would probably have been more than double.

Sweden presents an even better example of how the U. S. procedure may produce bigger unemployment figures. The August 1959 issue of *Labor Developments Abroad*, compiled by the United States Department of Labor, contained the following report from Sweden:

Old-style unemployment statistics, based on registrations at public employment agencies, showed a total of 47,000 unemployed persons in April 1959. A new survey for the same period, based on U.S. sampling methods, showed a total of 136,000. Unregistered youth (waiting for training opportunities) and housewives (who are seeking work but have not registered) accounted for the difference.

Thus, use of American concepts and measurement would come close to tripling Swedish unemployment estimates.

Note: Reprinted from section "Unemployment at Home and Abroad," *Business and Economic Conditions*, Monthly Letter, May 1960, First National City Bank, New York. Italics for quotations added.

Consumer Panels as a Tool for Financial Research

by

Robert Ferber

WHY CONSUMER PANELS?

Continuous and current data on changes in aggregate saving and on how savings vary among families of different characteristics is of inestimable value to both business and government. For government, prompt information on the trends of consumer spending and saving is an important requirement of successful fiscal and monetary policy. Government economic policy has the dual objective of short-run stabilization and long-run growth. The policies of the Federal Reserve, the Treasury, and other branches of the federal government depend on whether the current state of the economy and the business outlook are appraised as inflationary or deflationary, and whether the amounts and kinds of saving are adequate for the long-term growth objectives of the economy. Without information on the consumer sector, the largest and sometimes the most volatile element in national expenditures, appraisals of the economic outlook either for the short run or the long pull, can be greatly mistaken.

Moreover, for these purposes information about the composition of consumer wealth and saving among various types of assets and debts is fully as important as figures on total saving; and the distribution of these financial magnitudes among different kinds of households is fully as important as national aggregates and averages. Disaggregated data of the required detail can only be collected directly from consumers themselves, by sample surveys; they cannot be collected indirectly from financial institutions. A few examples will illustrate the importance of data that are accessible only by such sample surveys.

1. Even in the best of times, some households suffer declines in income or other financial reverses. Many of these households will spend more than their incomes—about a third of American households dissave even in prosperous years. How much they dissave depends on how liquid they are—how much they have in the bank, how far in debt they already

have gone. Only survey data can tell whether income declines are occurring predominantly among consumers who are likely to be heavy dissavers or among households who will not be able or willing to dissave very much.

2. Purchase of consumers' durable goods may be a substitute either for accumulation of liquid assets or for spending on nondurable goods and services. The over-all economic impact of short-run fluctuations and of long-run trends in the automobile industry and other consumers' durable goods industries clearly depends on which choices of consumers predominate. Survey data can reveal the extent to which consumers have been financing purchases by reducing their net liquid position, or the extent to which accumulation of durable goods has been balanced by concurrent saving in more liquid forms. Only data of this kind collected continuously for an extended period of years can indicate which kind of effect is likely to predominate in the long run.

3. Households of differing income levels, age, occupation, and location are known to react very differently to changes in income, wealth, and other economic circumstances. For example, proprietors of unincorporated businesses, including farmers, have a high propensity to save by investing in their businesses, and likewise a high propensity to convert liquid assets that come their way into business capital. The distribution of income and assets between these proprietors and other households is therefore of key importance in appraising the economic outlook. But only direct surveys can provide such data; in indirect aggregative statistics, these two kinds of households cannot be distinguished.

The examples indicate that survey savings data are as important for business policy as for government. Many decisions of business policy depend, like government policy, on an appraisal of the over-all economic outlook. In addition, continuous survey savings data can be of tremendous aid in dealing with such questions as forecasting sales, gauging market potentials, guiding the use of promotional

efforts, determining investment plans, and scheduling production and inventory changes.

Ultimately the successful use of information in policy decisions depends on the detection of reasonably stable relationships on which predictions can be based. Accurate survey savings data are as important for such research as for the operating needs of business and government. In the quest for reliable bases for prediction of household saving and spending behavior, research workers must rely heavily on differences in behavior between consumers of varying circumstances, and on differences in behavior by the same consumers as their circumstances change over time. Only by going directly to consumers can such data be obtained, for national aggregate estimates of saving obtained by indirect methods do not permit the necessary distinctions between different classes of consumers and do not preserve the identity of individual consumers over a period of time.

The importance of observing the same families over time deserves emphasis. Estimates of the effects on saving of variations in such factors as family income, number of children, changes in occupation and employment status, and degree of security are essential for assessing the impact of changing economic conditions or of possible changes in government policy. Such estimates can be made much more reliably by interviewing repeatedly the same families than by single-interview cross-section surveys.

NATURE OF A PANEL OPERATION

The principal feature that distinguishes a panel from a so-called one-time survey is that in the former repeat interviews are sought with the same people often covering the same items of information. For example, the member families of a panel may be questioned in January about their incomes and changes in assets and liabilities during the fourth quarter of the preceding year. In April, the same people would be reinterviewed and asked for the same items of information but referring to the first quarter of the current year rather than to the fourth quarter of the preceding year.

At the same time, various supplementary non-repetitive questions may be included in each interview. Thus, in January questions might be asked about willingness to incur debt in connection with Christmas shopping, whereas in April questions might be asked about vacation plans and possible means of financing.

The length of time that a panel is kept in operation depends on the purpose of the study and on the resources available. If a panel is to be used for a "before and after" test, two interviews may be sufficient, one interview before the event takes place, and the other interview afterward. On the other hand, if the purpose is to collect continuing information on changes in family purchases or in family savings practices, a panel may be kept in existence

essentially on a permanent basis. Even then, the same families are not interviewed for years on end, because a certain amount of rotation is advisable to maintain representativeness and to forestall conditioning effects. A particular family will not be retained in a panel more than a few years, and new families will be introduced into the panel on a preset systematic basis.

Although most consumer panels are conducted by mail for reasons of economy, panel operations seeking primarily financial data generally have to be conducted by personal interview. This means that the operation may be quite expensive, with the cost of the personal interviews averaging anywhere between \$15 and \$25 on the first round and between \$10 and \$15 thereafter. In addition, office expense tends to be considerably higher than in a one-time operation because the panel nature of the study requires a fair amount of correspondence and other forms of contact with the panel members.

Although various means of cost reduction are possible, such as the occasional use of mail questionnaires on later rounds of interviews, the over-all cost of these panel operations is not low. The fact remains, however, that a huge amount of data is collected—much of it not obtainable in any other way—and that the cost per item of information is invariably much less than would be incurred by the same number of interviews always with different families.

OPERATING PROBLEMS

A panel operation is subject to all of the usual problems of any other sample survey.¹ In addition to those, however, a number of problems distinctive to a panel operation are also encountered. This is not the place to discuss them in any detail, but a brief review of the principal of such problems may be instructive.

Cooperation

It is more difficult to obtain the consent of people to participate in a panel operation than in a single interview simply because of the extended nature of the study. In effect, the people are being asked to grant a large number of interviews, in some cases an undetermined number. For this reason, the problem of motivating people to cooperate is far more important in a panel operation. Not only do people have to be willing to provide information on the initial interview but they also have to be motivated to continue to grant further interviews.

In commercial studies, this motivation is often supplied by offering the people gifts and other incentives in exchange for their cooperation. Thus, in

¹ A discussion of these problems will be found in such books as W. E. Deming, *Some Theory of Sampling* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1950); M. H. Hansen, W. N. Hurwitz, and W. G. Madow, *Sample Survey Methods and Theory* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1953); Mildred Parten, *Samples, Polls, and Surveys* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1950); or Robert Ferber, *Statistical Techniques in Marketing Research* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1949).

national consumer panels maintained by various commercial organizations, panel members are given points based on the number of questionnaires or diary forms that they submit, on the completeness with which they are submitted, on the continuity of submission, and on the length of time the particular family has participated in the operation. These points can be exchanged in a manner similar to trading stamps for almost anything ranging from nail files to bedroom furniture.

Panel Mortality

Experience has shown that many people who will grant an initial interview and appear to be fully cooperative at the start will refuse to participate in later interviews for one reason or another. As a general rule, panel mortality rates are highest on the second and third rounds of interviews and tend to level off thereafter. Nevertheless, panel loss can be substantial, and may amount to as much as half of the original number interviewed.²

Panel mortality tends to be a serious problem for three reasons. First, the opportunity to continue observing changes in the same family and relate them to past events is lost. Second, the cost of adding new families for replacement purposes is invariably much higher than the cost of reinterviewing the same families. Third, mortality may not be uniform throughout the panel, some studies indicating that panel mortality is higher among some population groups than others.³ For this reason the possibility of biased results from a panel operation is an ever-present danger.

Bias

The danger of bias in a panel operation arises essentially from two sources. On the one hand, the panel members may become conditioned as a result of their participation in the study. Thus, if a study focuses on one particular topic, such as the extent to which people make deposits in savings accounts, the fact that people are reminded frequently of their savings accounts may cause them to make transactions in these accounts more often than would otherwise be the case.

In other instances, conditioning may be beneficial to a study, and may come about because of greater willingness of people to cooperate as they become convinced of the authenticity and reliability of the study. Thus, purchases reported by panel members in one study were found to increase considerably as time went on, the reason apparently being that panel members had begun to record their purchases in

advance of the interviewer's arrival, thereby reducing the frequency with which such purchases were forgotten.⁴

The second major source of bias is possible nonrepresentativeness of the panel. To some extent this arises because generally not all of the people selected for the panel are willing to cooperate; this is the problem faced by any sample survey. In addition, however, there is the previously mentioned problem of panel mortality compounded by the fact that even in the absence of such mortality a panel tends to become increasingly less representative of the population at large as time goes on. This is a problem which can be dealt with in part by sample rotation, but even then the danger of bias from this source has to be investigated.

The effect of this nonrepresentativeness is to make it difficult to estimate such population aggregates as the total number of families having one or more savings accounts or the amount of money older people have invested in corporate stock. However, the primary objective of a panel operation is not generally the estimation of magnitudes but rather the identification of reasons for particular types of behavior and the specification of relationships between variables. For this purpose, nonrepresentativeness fortunately tends to be of little importance.

Interviewer Training

If the panel is to be conducted by personal interview, interviewers play a key role in the success of the operation. Not only do they have to be trained to cope with the problems that will arise in securing cooperation of families in a panel study, but they have to be retrained periodically to be aware of possible sources of confusion and of exactly what information is being sought. In particular, there is the danger of the interviewer becoming somewhat blase about the whole operation after a while and even somewhat bored. As a result, a panel operation poses the problem of maintaining morale and interest not only of participating families but of the interviewers as well.

REPORT OF A CASE STUDY

In 1957 an integrated and coordinated four-year program of research was launched on means of estimating consumer savings and the factors that enter into savings practices and decisions. The project is under the sponsorship of the Inter-University Committee for Research on Consumer Behavior with financial support from the Ford Foundation.

Data on consumer savings are collected by surveys in various parts of the country. Several of these studies have been panel operations, two of which have now been completed, one in Chicago and the

² For a discussion of mortality curves in panel operations, see Robert Ferber, "Observations on a Consumer Panel Operation," *Journal of Marketing*, January 1953.

³ L. O. Brown, *Marketing and Distribution Research* (New York: Ronald Press, 1955); S. G. Barton, "Consumer Panels" in Churchman, Ackoff and Wax (editors), *Measurement of Consumer Interest* (Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania Press, 1947). In financial surveys, mortality appears to be highest among families where the main wage earner has not had a college education or is a proprietor of a business.

⁴ Robert Ferber, "Observations on a Consumer Panel Operation," *op. cit.*

other in St. Louis. Each of these operations extended over five rounds of interviews, covering an entire year. The principal operational results of these studies, summarized in this section, throw considerable light on the feasibility of such operations for financial research.

Response

In both of these studies about four out of five people contacted consented to provide information on their savings behavior. In the judgment of the interviewers the great majority of those interviewed were sincere, accurate, and comprehensive in providing the information requested.

The mortality rate at the end of these operations was between 25 per cent and 30 per cent, most of these people having dropped out in the second or third interview. In other words, of the panel members who were interviewed initially, between 70 to 75 per cent were still participating by the end of the study.

Reasons for Refusal

Disinterest (or lack of time) and reluctance to divulge personal financial information were the two most frequent reasons given for refusing initial interviews. Those dropping out later on cited lack of time as the principal reason.

Interviewers

Considerable variability was apparent in the performance rates of individual interviewers, much more so than could be accounted for by differences in the areas covered. Some interviewers were able to retain as many as 90 per cent of their initial panel members throughout the course of the operation. Clearly, therefore, careful selection of interviewers can be highly rewarding.

Field Cost

The cost of the initial round of interviews averaged about \$25 per completed interview. On later rounds of interviews, the cost dropped to an average of anywhere between \$11 and \$17. These figures include all field costs including interviewer selection and training, but do not include office expense or cost of project administration.

Gifts and Incentives

Circumstantial evidence indicates that an advance offer of a gift helped secure cooperation in Chicago on about one-fifth of the initial interviews. On the other hand, the gift appeared to have boomeranged in a number of cases, including some low income families, because the inter-university sponsorship of the project led people to question the propriety of such an action.

Though it is not clear whether the acceptance of a gift was cause or effect, those who accepted gifts were generally much more cooperative than those who did not, particularly in their willingness to supply all the data requested. At the same time, there is evidence that in this particular study newspaper

clippings on the project were at least as effective as gifts in securing cooperation and in convincing panel members of the authenticity of the study.

Panel Rapport

Consistent improvement in rapport was apparent throughout these studies. Especially significant is the fact that appreciable amounts of different assets and debts held at the time of the first round of interviews were not reported until later rounds. Thus, it appears that the panel approach improved the accuracy of the data obtained not only currently but on an ex post facto basis as well.

Use of Diary

Efforts to induce panel members in Chicago to keep running diaries of their income and expenditures, or of their income and savings transactions, succeeded in no more than one quarter of the cases. The amount of effort needed to keep these diaries rather than reluctance to provide the information seems to be primarily responsible for this failure.

In addition, some panel members objected to providing on the diary such information as seemed to them essentially the same as that which they were giving during the personal interviews.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

As a means of collecting financial data, consumer panel techniques are seen to possess major advantages relative to the usual one-time survey, but are also not without disadvantages. In the former sense consumer panels provide a means of tracing changes in consumer financial holdings over time and relating these changes to changes in family circumstances. At the same time, not only are more data obtained pertinent to the saving behavior of the consumer unit, but there is reason to believe that these data are more accurate than those obtained in a single interview, particularly if adjustments can be made in prior estimates as more complete reports are obtained.

On the other side of the ledger a panel operation is much more expensive than a one-time interview study covering the same number of people—though it is less expensive in proportion to the amount of data obtained. More serious is the problem of inducing people to participate in such an undertaking and to continue participating beyond just one or two interviews. Securing cooperation is a problem which is not of course distinctive to a panel operation, but nonresponse does increase with time, albeit at a decreasing rate, and the danger of bias is therefore greater. To the extent that appreciable biases exist as a result of the panel operation, this technique is at a disadvantage insofar as deriving population estimates is concerned, unless correction factors for this bias can be obtained. In either event, however, panels possess unique value as analytical tools for tracing dynamic changes in consumer behavior.

THE SOUTH'S COMPETITIVE POSITION

The 1959 report to the Southern Governors' Conference on the South's competitive position covers projects undertaken by the Southern Association of Science and Industry¹ in cooperation with the Southern Governors' Committee on Industrial Development. This report² alleges to the notable industrial progress made in the South—an accomplishment resulting from intensive and intelligent planning, effort, and application of technical knowledge. The consistent increase in new plants in southern states (1,059 in 1956; 1,314 in 1957; 1,424 in 1958; and 651 in the first six months of 1959) bears out the remarkable degree to which developmental programs are bearing fruit.

The following highlights of the report give evidence to the South's progress in several areas:

Markets

Retail trade in the region is expanding far ahead of the national average. In 1947 the southern states accounted for only 16.1 per cent of all retail trade. This grew to 25.5 per cent in 1954 and to 27.3 per cent in 1958.

In 1958 about 35 per cent of the nation's imports and exports represented commodity flow through southern ports.

Per capita incomes in several dozen southern cities are higher than the national average.

Manpower

Labor in the South, labeled in early history as plentiful and unskilled, has rapidly become more highly skilled, with a corresponding increase in earning capacity. Progress in technical and scientific fields has been remarkable. In 1958 the southern states accounted for 3,856 published scientific papers in the field of chemistry alone. This was 210 more scientific contributions than in 1957.

¹ The activities of the Southern Association of Science and Industry are described in a section at the end of this article.

² This article, giving some of the major points of the report, is largely quoted from the publication, *The South's Competitive Position*, A Report to The Southern Governors' Conference, presented by The Committee on Industrial Development, prepared and published by the Southern Association of Science and Industry. Copies of the report may be obtained, without charge, by writing to the Southern Association of Science and Industry, Inc., Room 206-7F, Ivy Street Building, 33 Gilmer Street, S. E., Atlanta 3, Georgia.

Materials

The South is the dominant producing region for such minerals as petroleum, natural gas, magnesium, bauxite, phosphate rock, kaolin, fuller's earth, marble, zinc, lead, ball clay, bromine, sulphur, titanium, and diamonds. Other major products from the southern area are citrus products, peaches, poultry broilers, peanuts, sugar cane, sweet potatoes, rice, tobacco, vegetable oils, naval stores, and furs.

Forests in the South furnish raw materials for multimillion dollar industries such as pulp and paper, and furniture.

Food processing, one of the principal growth industries, is based on materials produced on farms, in orchards, and from the sea.

Transportation

States in the southern region have the advantage of a long coastline (over 4,000 miles) and about 60 per cent of the nation's navigable inland waterways. For air transportation the climate and terrain of the South are generally favorable for year-round activity.

A recent study by the Bureau of Census discloses that the southern states lead all other regions in vacation automobile trips which terminate or originate in the region.

Government and Legislation

The favorable business climate created by the states and their legislation is confirmed by the fact

that industrial leaders throughout the country generally regard the South as having the best business climate of any major region.

Financing

The region, long lagging in its capacity to provide capital for growth, is making rapid progress in the field of financing. Bank deposits in the South in 1958 reached about \$42 billion. More than 800 local development corporations which finance buildings and sites for incoming industry have been organized.

Power

Major supplies of petroleum and natural gas and huge reserves of coal and lignite place the South in a position to generate electric power at lower cost and deliver it more efficiently than other regions.

Industrial Sites

There are about 450 planned industrial districts in the southern states. One such district attracted some 50 new plants in one year.

Intangibles

One of the most important aspects of the South's competitive position is the enthusiasm, welcome, and cooperation which its communities extend to new industry. Local chambers of commerce and other civic-minded organizations are one of the region's biggest assets.

* * *

THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF SCIENCE AND INDUSTRY (SASI)

In 1941 over one hundred southern leaders, representing a cross-section of both science and industry, met in Mobile. The result of this meeting was the organization of the Southern Association for the Advancement of Science and Industry³—a nonprofit, politically independent organization, with the purpose of promoting social, cultural, and economic progress in the South. The operations of the organization are described as threefold:

1. *Regional Awareness*: A continuous and planned program to acquaint people everywhere with progressive trends in the South, and the unique opportunities which exist here.

2. *Research*: A constant search for new research opportunities in the South. The encouragement of

industry to carry on its own research programs and make findings available to others for mutual benefit.

3. *Coordination*: A planned program to coordinate the efforts of the hundreds of groups working to promote southern progress in order to eliminate duplication and focus attention on neglected fields.

Fifteen southern states⁴ are represented in SASI. The organization keeps a continuous tally of science-industry growth in the South including a reporting service on new plants. It reports research findings which may be of interest to southern industry; it is a source of information on the South for groups outside the region; it circulates information concerning southern industrial opportunities and carries on a permanent educational program.

³ The account given here of the organization and purpose of SASI is largely quoted from William Pruett, *The Southern Association of Science and Industry, Its History, Aims, Accomplishments, and Future...* Copies of this pamphlet may be obtained without charge from the Southern Association of Science and Industry. See footnote 2 for address.

⁴ Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia.

THE SOUTHEASTERN CORNER



by
Warren A. Walker

INDUSTRIAL POTENTIALS IN THE SOUTH

Part III

All of the industrial opportunities considered in the past two articles have one feature in common, namely, they are in one way or another connected with building construction. The industrial opportunity to be considered here is likewise related to construction, but in a somewhat different way. The potential for this industry is bright, not so much because a great deal of building construction is in progress, but rather because of economic and sociological changes that are taking place within the southeastern United States, such as increased urbanization and a gradually rising standard of living.

VITREOUS CHINA

Use of vitreous china is confined largely to the rather broad classification of sanitary ware, which includes such products as basins, bathtubs, and related items. Consumption of these goods will tend to increase as population centers grow. In addition, rising incomes have made the multiple bath homes far more commonplace today than was the case even a decade ago.

There have been those who realized long ago that this industrial potentiality existed for the South and for Georgia in particular. The writer recalls the rather bitter comment made by a teacher in the Atlanta Public Schools back in 1933. "Georgia produces two things of high quality and in sufficient quantity—ceramic engineers and kaolin. Yet, the bulk of both goes north before you have anything in which to take a bath." The name of this perceptive person was Harriet Thomas, whose fiery regional loyalties were something to be long remembered.

THE ATLANTA ECONOMIC REVIEW

FAVORABLE FACTORS

In addition to the economic and sociological trends mentioned above, there are many other factors favorable to this industry. One such factor is that at the present time only 20 per cent of the sales of this type of product in the Southeast are items manufactured in this same area. However, nearly 75 per cent of all the kaolin mined in the United States is mined in Georgia. For vitreous china production in the South, the recently improved port facilities along the southern seaboard would provide convenient transportation for such minor quantities of English clays as might be required as raw material in addition to locally-mined kaolin.

Natural gas is an important and almost essential fuel in the processing of vitreous china. In this respect Georgia has a two-way advantage over other areas. This first advantage is that it is inexpensive, with rates running from 24 to 29 cents per 1,000 cubic feet.¹ The second favoring factor is that some of the major gas pipelines already run through the area having the largest kaolin deposits.

Deposits of kaolin in Georgia are tightly grouped geographically. Of the nine counties having kaolin deposits, six actually adjoin one another. These are Bibb, Twiggs, Wilkinson, Baldwin, Hancock, and Washington. The other three are quite nearby, with Richmond to the east and Meriwether and Taylor to the west. This concentration constitutes an additional advantage to the potential manufacturer. If, over a long period of years, the initial deposits should become exhausted it would not be necessary to move the plant. Other deposits would be sufficiently close by to permit economical hauling.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE INDUSTRY

The vitreous china industry is one having relatively high capital requirements. For this reason it is more feasible for the development of the industry in the counties named to occur as a branch operation of an existing manufacturer rather than as a "home grown" industry.

In common with many other industries having high capital requirements, this activity tends to have a strongly oligopolistic economic pattern. "The four largest companies account for 65 per cent of national sales; eight of the largest companies supply 83 per cent of the product, while 20 of the largest supply 98 per cent."²

¹ Walter Kennon and William E. Durrett, *Vitreous China Sanitary Ware*, p. 11. Industrial Development Branch, Engineering Experiment Station, Georgia Institute of Technology, July 1958. Copies may be obtained from the Georgia Department of Commerce on request.

² *Concentration in American Industry*, Report of the Subcommittee on Antitrust and Monopoly to the Committee on the Judiciary, U. S. Senate. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, 1957.

Sales figures are difficult to analyze because many of the companies that produce vitreous china also produce a wide variety of other products. In many instances the published reports of these companies are not sufficiently detailed to determine what part of their sales is provided by what products. On the other hand, from a comparison of these figures with others such as construction and sales at the retail level, it seems reasonable to conclude that the six southeastern states provide an annual market somewhat in excess of \$16 million dollars; and, considering transportation and other factors, it would appear that the bulk of the production of a plant in central Georgia would be distributed in this six-state area.

As is the case with some of the other industries that have been examined in this series of articles, some development has already taken place. Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina already have one such plant each for the manufacture of vitreous china. The combined production of these three plants supplies about 20 per cent of the total needs of the area. The other three southeastern states—Florida, North Carolina, and Tennessee—have no production at all.

While central Georgia is the most obvious location for additional expansion for industry using kaolin as the base raw material, the writer understands that certain types of ball clays such as are found in Tennessee can be used also.

Since there is a fairly high correlation between building construction and the consumption of vitreous china products, it may be well to review briefly the growth of construction in the United States during the postwar period.

Residential construction in 1946 was slightly over \$5 billion, but by 1957 it had increased to more than \$17 billion; nonresidential construction had increased from slightly less than \$4 billion to more than \$14 billion. From earlier statistical analyses of the southeastern states it may be seen that their rate of gain on the basis of these two indicators has been even greater than for the United States as a whole. In order to make this comparison more meaningful, nonresidential construction that did not involve buildings—such as highways, bridges, etc.—has been omitted in every instance.

The Industrial Development Branch of the Georgia Institute of Technology has estimated that in 1960 residential construction will exceed \$20 billion and nonresidential construction will exceed \$16 billion. These estimates and projections have been extended to 1970, at which time residential construction is expected to exceed \$26 billion and nonresidential construction to approach \$21 billion. Even if it is assumed that these figures are optimistic and that the volume of construction will not expand so rapidly, there still remains a large and expanding market for vitreous china products.

April, 1960

ATLANTA AREA ECONOMIC INDICATORS

ITEM	April 1960	March 1960	% Change	April 1959	% Change	% Change 4 months '60 over 4 months '59
EMPLOYMENT						
Job Insurance (Unemployment) Payments -----	\$371,550	\$507,499	-26.8	\$416,897	-10.9	-12.1
Job Insurance Claimants -----	7,148	8,023	-10.9	6,436	+11.1	- 0.2
Total Non-Ag. Employment -----	362,950	357,600r	+ 1.5	354,600r	+ 2.4	+ 7.5
Manufacturing Employment -----	85,850	86,050r	- 0.2	87,150r	- 1.5	+ 0.4
Average Weekly Earnings, Factory Workers -----	\$79.97	\$72.22	+10.7	\$81.20r	- 1.5	- 1.6
Average Weekly Hours, Factory Workers -----	39.2	35.4	+10.7	40.6	- 3.5	- 5.1
Index of Help Wanted Ads (Seasonally adjusted, 1947-49 Avg.=100) -----	159.3	152.0	+ 4.8	166.2	- 4.2	+ 3.5
CONSTRUCTION						
Number of Building Permits§ -----	843	685	+23.1	796	+ 5.9	- 9.8
Value of Building Permits§ -----	\$8,003,123	\$7,820,919	+ 2.3	\$7,287,245	+ 9.8	-37.2
Employees -----	20,200	18,050r	+11.9	21,400r	- 5.6	- 8.4
FINANCIAL▲						
Bank Debits (Millions) -----	2,026.1	2,068.7	- 2.1	1,988.3	+ 1.9	+ 6.8
Bank Deposits (Millions) -----	1,250.1	1,231.9	+ 1.5	1,237.5	+ 1.0	+ 1.7
OTHER						
Department Store Sales Index ----	180	157r	+14.6	171r	+ 5.3	+ 5.1
Retail Food Price Index -----	116.8	115.0	+ 1.6	115.7	+ 0.9	- 0.4
Number Telephones in Service ---	368,683	366,609	+ 0.6	333,270	+10.6	+48.7

r—Revised
§City of Atlanta only.

*Average month
N. A.—Not Available

**End of period

†—Based on retail dollar amounts
▲Data from members of the Federal Reserve System only.

Sources: All data on employment, unemployment, hours, and earnings: Employment Security Agency, Georgia Department of Labor; Number Help Wanted Ads: Atlanta Newspapers, Inc.; Building permits data: Office of the Building Inspector, Atlanta, Georgia; Financial data: Board of Governors, Federal Reserve System; Postal data: Atlanta Post Office; Retail Food Price Index: U. S. Department of Labor; Department Store Sales Index: Federal Reserve Bank of Atlanta and Board of Governors, Federal Reserve System; Telephones in Service: Southern Bell Telephone and Telegraph Company.

ATLANTA BUSINESS ACTIVITY

Total **nonagricultural employment** set a new record in April of 362,950 workers. This represents 5,350 jobs over the previous month and makes 1960's four month total 8 per cent better than the same period of 1959. A substantial portion of the increase was seasonal, as **construction** began to pick up, adding 2,150 jobs over the previous month. The addition by the federal government of census takers and an upsurge in retail trade and services accounted for another 3,600 additions. On the other hand, **employment in manufacturing** was down 200 workers mostly in furniture and fixtures and in primary metals and transportation equipment as the auto assembly firms saw less business for the month. Lockheed's employment held steady in April.

Average weekly earnings of factory workers turned up for the first time since January, reaching \$79.97 (as compared to January's \$83.21). The year's average is still about 2 per cent under 1959. The same pattern is evident in **average weekly hours of factory workers**, April marking the highest point (39.2 hrs.) since January and the year's total running 5 per cent under last year.

The **help wanted ads index**, though turning up in April, is still below par for this time of the year (4 per cent below April 1959).

Construction activity appears to be rapidly recovering from the downturn which occurred around September and has continued steadily upward through April. The city of Atlanta Inspector of Buildings reports a year's record of 843 **building permits** representing also a year's record in value of \$8,003,123, ten per cent better than this time last year. The May figures (not shown in the accompanying table) show even better gains as permits numbered 989 and values totaled \$11,941,621, the highest figure on record since the all-time record month of February 1959 (\$20,588,611). It is evident that construction is back up to respectable levels. Though there is a lag between permits and the actual work, the number of **employees in construction** has shown a healthy gain along with the number of permits. The 20,200 workers represent an addition of 2,150 jobs over March and, like the other construction indicators, mark a high for the year.

Bank debits were down slightly from March, but retail trade as indicated by **department store sales** was up 15 per cent.

J.R.O.

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This is the first paper of a study-series on the subject of public relations efforts of business education personnel in secondary schools. The author has made an extensive study of current public relations activities of high-school business education teachers and has formulated a checklist of such activities. From this list it is believed a determination can be made of those media of business-education public relations which are not only theoretically feasible but are practically possible and profitable.

Mr. Calhoun is Assistant Professor of Business Education, School of Business Administration of Georgia State College of Business Administration.

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... by David J. Schwartz
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you have any suggestions you would like to pass on to other sales executives for helping salesmen become more productive working through the salesman's wife?"

Dr. Schwartz is Professor of Marketing, School of Business Administration of Georgia State College of Business Administration.

BULLETIN NUMBER 6

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Dr. Whetten is Professor of Accounting, School of Business Administration of Georgia State College of Business Administration.

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